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THE APPLICATION OF PSYCHOANALYTIC CONCEPTS OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT TO THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS.

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KNOWLEDGE OF PSYCHOANALYTIC EGO PSYCHOLOGY CAN BE USED BY EDUCATORS TO PROMOTE MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF CHILDREN IN THE GROUP SETTING OF THE CLASSROOM. THIS THEORY WAS THE BASIS OF THE TEACHERS TRAINING PROGRAM ESTABLISHED BY THE CHICAGO INSTITUTE FOR PSYCHOANALYSIS. THE PROGRAM INVOLVED FIVE SEMINARS AT WHICH TEACHERS PRESENTED CASE SUMMARIES BASED ON CURRENT CLASSROOM PROBLEMS. THE CASES WERE USED AS POINTS OF DEPARTURE FOR TEACHING APPROPRIATE THEORY APPLICABLE TO OTHER CHILDREN. CONSULTATION WAS ALSO PROVIDED ON THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD. THE TRAINING PROGRAM UTILIZED TEACHER OBSERVATION AND TEACHER INTROSPECTION AS INSTRUCTIONAL TOOLS. SINCE MANY OF THE CONCEPTS TAUGHT RAN COUNTER TO TRADITIONAL EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY AND PRACTICE, THEY ACTIVATED ANXIETY AND PERSONAL CONFLICT IN TEACHERS. THE LEADER, HOWEVER, BY ACCEPTING AND RESPECTING THE TEACHERS' FEELINGS, MINIMIZED THE ANXIETY. PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY WAS ALSO USED TO HELP TEACHERS BECOME MORE SENSITIVE AND TOLERANT OF THEIR PUPILS. FINALLY, EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR MEETING THE CHILD'S NEEDS WERE DEVELOPED BY THE TEACHERS IN COLLARBORATION WITH THE LEADER. THIS PAPER WAS PRESENTED AT THE 44TH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ORTHOPSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION (WASHINGTON, D.C., MARCH 22-25, 1967). (CG)

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THE APPLICATION OF PSYCHOANALYTIC CONCEPTS OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT TO THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS*

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In the past, teachers had a relatively well-defined function: to teach a body of knowledge and skills to children who more or less were ready for academic learning, accepted their own roles as learners and in general showed respect for teacher authority. But today, for increasing numbers of children in our inner-city schools, this is no longer true. As a result, the teacher's function is less readily defined. The gap between traditional teacher education and the psychological realities of practice grows wider. The pressing need for change in the professional training of teachers and the acute shortage of consultation services to schools are conditions receiving the attention of many workers in education and in the allied mental health fields.

Traditional educational training programs place major emphasis on instructional content and method. Generally, teachers enter practice prepared with an armamentarium of disciplinary techniques for managing a variety of pupil behaviors and symptoms, but rarely with a systematic theoretical framework for understanding the inter-related aspects of mental development in children. The teacher in an average classroom sees many children with manifold symptoms of mental and emotional disorders, variously labeled "maladjusted," "culturally deprived," "perceptually handicapped," or "emotionally disturbed." These descriptive labels alone, useful perhaps for pupil classification, hardly serve as diagnostic guidelines for instruction and/or classroom management. With the focus on "target" groups in the school population -- the deprived, disadvantaged -- has come a corresponding interest in methods for producing behavioral change. Because of the large numbers of non-conforming, emotionally immature children, there is a tendency to look for short cuts, to stereotype and de-humanize, to deal with the most conspicuous behavior traits of the group as a whole, its characteristic outlook on life, its modes of coping, aspirations, values, with a resultant de-emphasis on the understanding of

the needs of the individual child. Effective pedagogy must take into account individual learning patterns as expressed in the context of the group. For each child the learning process is unique -- a multi-faceted transaction, including cognitive, biological, social, interpersonal, and emotional factors. Ideally, the teacher's task is to create an educational milieu in her classroom which will foster learning for each child in her group. This will involve preventing problems for some, ameliorating difficulties for others, and retraining where necessary.

For all the public clamor and attention given schools these days, the individual teacher continues to operate in virtual isolation from fellow teachers, and even more, from allied workers in the mental health field. An appeal from a group of inner-city school principals and teachers to the Chicago Institute for Psychoanalysis for mental health consultation on school problems resulted in the establishment of the Teacher Training Program.* In addition to the primary objective of service and training, the program is an attempt to provide a forum for interprofessional dialogue between teachers and mental health workers in an area of common interest -- the mental development of children.

Starting three years ago as an experimental mental health project serving eighteen teachers from three inner-city schools, it is now an organized training and consultation program with an enrollment of ninety teachers from fifty schools. While most of the schools served are in the poverty areas of the city, the program has since expanded to cover a wide geographical area including adjoining suburbs. In addition, teachers from a number of specialized school programs have joined our ranks -- from social adjustment schools, residential treatment centers, private schools, National Teacher Corps, Head Start. The professional backgrounds of the participating teachers are similarly diversified. In addition to classroom teachers, our student body

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includes several assistant principals, adjustment counselors, teacher-nurses, supervisors, district coordinators, and instructors from teacher training institutions. Although there is much variation in their teaching experience (from one to forty years), and in the quality of their professional training, every teacher has achieved the B.A. Degree and many, the M.A.

The Teacher Training Program has just been extended from one to two years, with two series of twelve seminars offered each year. Five seminars, with enrollments of ten to fifteen teachers, meet one evening each week for one and one-half hours at the Chicago Institute for Psychoanalysis. During the first year, the teachers prepare and present case summaries based on current classroom problems. Consultation is provided on the individual child. The case is also used as a point of departure for teaching appropriate theory applicable to other children in the classroom. Teachers who have completed two series of case seminars are then eligible to take a course in Normal Growth and Development. This course is given in two consecutive twelve-week seminars. The first, taught by a child analyst, is a systematic presentation of ego development in children; the second, taught by an educator, emphasizes classroom applications of the theory. Selected readings in the literature are suggested but not required.

The interdisciplinary faculty consists of seminar leaders and administrative staff, each with training from the Institute for Psychoanalysis, in its three-year Child Care Program and/or four-year Child Therapy Training Program, and with experience in many different mental health settings. The staff meets regularly to study curriculum and improve teaching methods. Evaluation is an on-going procedure, involving the participation of teachers and staff. Despite the fact that teachers receive no promotional credit or official recognition for taking this course, the demand for it continues to grow.

It is our hope that this program will provide a model for mental health collaboration with schools.

Our thesis is that psychoanalytic ego psychology offers the educator a conceptual framework by which a wide range of mental phenomena may be comprehended and enlisted in the educative process. We recognize distinct and essential differences in goals, methods, and materials between the educational and the therapeutic applications of this theory. Application of dynamic personality theory in education does not imply the use of the clinical treatment model. The job of teaching children in groups is complicated enough without adding a therapeutic function which teachers are neither qualified nor motivated to perform. Emphasis is on use of the theory to promote and facilitate effective teaching of children in a group setting -- the classroom. Management of symptomatic manifestations of personality disturbance in students is inherent in the role of the teacher.

In this paper we hope to show how knowledge of dynamic psychology may bring new teacher insights and direction and may widen the range of teacher interventions, thus making more effective use of pedagogic skills. To illustrate our thesis, we will draw on our work in the Teacher Training and Consultation Program sponsored by the Chicago Institute for Psychoanalysis.*

To demonstrate the interweaving of dynamic theory and our teacher training method, we shall present the case of a hyper-aggressive child. This case, prepared by a public school teacher, was dealt with by the seminar leader with two aims in mind: as a problem in consultation and as a focus for the

teaching of pertinent theory.** We selected this type of problem because it is typical of many being seen in schools. There were several follow-up sessions in the seminars. The learning experience of teachers in both the teaching and consultation in the initial phases of the seminar led to an active collaborative interchange between the disciplines in the closing phase.

The translation and application of pertinent dynamic theory to related classroom problems occurred gradually as teachers began to feel more secure with the seminar methods and began to integrate their own experiences with the problems they observed in children. We did not feel that our function was to make a comprehensive clinical diagnosis or dictate educational practice. Although problems of children as presented in teachers' case material covered the full range of the spectrum from normalcy to psychosis, with symptomotology representing an equally wide range of etiology and dynamics, nevertheless it was usually possible to show how the theory might be applied more broadly in other problem situations.

Problems in communication between the disciplines were reduced by:

1. The stance of the leader -- accepting, respectful, patient, empathic
2. The leader's avoidance of use of technical terminology in the teaching of theory
3. The leader's capacity to understand, conceptualize, and make explicit the teachers' own learning experience to enable them to relate it to the way their pupils learn
4. The leader's refusal to intrude on the personal privacy of teachers and consistent focus on her professional activity in the classroom

Collecting objective data on the effectiveness of this program in producing change in teaching practices has been difficult. Direct observation of

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** Seminar leader was Dr. Mary Kunst

teachers in their classrooms before and after the seminars undoubtedly would yield the most objective picture of program effectiveness. While we did not conduct this kind of appraisal, we did obtain evidence from other sources that points to the practical value of the program. This evidence came from:

1. The written responses of the participating teachers to a questionnaire
2. The observations by seminar leaders on changes in the quality of participation by individual teacher-students, plus recordings of the interactions.
3. Teachers' continual demand for the program and readiness to make an on-going commitment

The following case summary is presented to give the reader a picture of the consultation-training process as it transpires in the seminars. We wish to emphasize that the presentation is a composite of several seminars, not a replication of any one. It is unlikely that a seminar leader would introduce either the range or number of thecretical concepts included here in a single session. This illustration is only an indication of the nature of the inter-relationship between process and content in the seminars.

The Teacher's Dilemma

Mr. Bay, a young third grade teacher with one year of experience, admitted he was utterly baffled and at his wit's end over Sandy. The school principal reported that Mr. Bay was a rigid, tense man, unable to manage his classroom. In the seminar, consisting of ten teachers from different elementary schools, Mr. Bay presented this picture of his problem with Sandy.

Sandy, a ten-year-old, was failing Grade 3A. He had an I.Q. of 74, a drop of fourteen points from a test taken two years earlier. He had little self-control; was involved in a fight or argument daily, picking on classmates with little or no apparent provocation. Once he was accused of stealing another boy's nickel, which he denied until it was found in his shoe. The theft was not out of need, as Sandy had his own money and was reasonably well-dressed. He appeared to enjoy taking things just to see if he could get away with it. It was almost impossible to keep him occupied for even short periods. He was constantly out of his seat. He repeatedly came to the teacher to show his work; walked around other children; he was late coming to school. He could not do arithmetic. He never did his written English assignments. In social studies, he wouldn't read assigned lessons but read story books instead. Sometimes he took a story book and leafed through it or busied himself drawing pictures, but most of the time he bothered other children and the teacher.

Background

Sandy lived with his mother who worked part-time as a waitress, his grandmother, and an infant brother. His parents were divorced but the father contributed money regularly. A brother, seven years older, dropped out of continuation school to go into the Army. Sandy's mother expressed considerable anger over the "unexpected" termination of her marriage, especially since it came at a time when younger brother was "on the way."

Although mother worked, she took Sandy to school every day and picked him up in the afternoon, claiming that she did this so he wouldn't get hurt. She told the teacher that he was cruel to his pets at home and often beat his dog.

Mother had been called to school four times during the semester. On two occasions, she administered physical punishment. Sandy seemed afraid in his mother's presence.

The Leader's Stance

The leader's aims were:

1. To clarify, define and delimit teacher's role in the classroom situation

2. To demonstrate a problem solving approach, consisting of directed observation of the child and introspection of teacher feelings and reactions to the child

3. To transmit a body of theory

4. To conceptualize and make explicit the dynamics of the teaching-learning process as experienced in the seminar

5. To serve as a teaching model with whom teachers might identify

Realization of these aims would require more than intellectual learning of theory. The seminar leader focused first on teacher reactions and feelings stimulated by Sandy, recognizing the teachers' needs, frustrations, and anxiety in dealing with such a child. From the group's knowing nods and glances, it was apparent that Sandy was a familiar problem to every teacher in the seminar. Each had known and suffered with other Sandys. The keynote of their initial response was the familiar judgment -- "He just wants attention." Most teachers could cite similar examples from their personal experiences, in which more firmness and a no-nonsense approach were considered to be the only remedy. They manifested slight hope that school or teacher

would be able to accomplish much to solve the classroom problem without a basic change in Sandy's home situation. Generally, in this case, as in many other seemingly intractable problems, teachers were inclined to minimize the importance of the child's classroom experience and identified with the child as victim of his parents' maltreatment. The tendency toward this projection is a danger also for the seminar leader who may inadvertently, in her teaching of developmental theory, reinforce the teacher's defensive avoidance. She needs to keep in mind that, in part, teachers' focus on the home is based on their identification with the child against the parents; in part, it grows out of their sense of inadequacy and helplessness in teaching the child. Feelings of guilt mobilized by their sense of professional inadequacy, at times, leads to the wish to be rid of a child who rouses their unconscious anger and guilt. This frequently is expressed as a recommendation for his transfer to a "special" class or school, or in angry indictment of the parents.

Recognizing that teachers are usually unaware of these feelings in themselves, and moreover, would find them unacceptable and contrary to their professional self-image, the leader suggested some of the angry responses that a child like Sandy might evoke in adults. Frustrations inherent in the classroom setting were acknowledged. She helped them ventilate their despair over being unable to individualize instruction because of the frustrating conditions in their schools -- class size, demands of school administration, curriculum requirements.

The leader recognized that teachers, out of their own deep sense of helplessness might need to cast her in the omnipotent role of one who can produce the magical solution to the problem. To counteract this tendency,the leader:

1. Encouraged teachers to take a new look at their self-expectations. Were they over-ambitious, realistic?

2. Stimulated their interest and curiosity in the meaning and motivation underlying Sandy's behavior in the classroom

The aim of the leader was to help teachers focus on the problem with the child, to use their personal reactions as one means of understanding the child's communication.

Through comments and questions, the leader led the group to examine Mr. Bay's observations and to speculate about motivation and meaning. What sources of information did he have? His observations of Sandy and his introspective awareness of his own feelings toward Sandy were his chief sources. The hope was to heighten the perception of Sandy's total learning experience -- how the world looked and felt to him, how he perceived classroom, teacher, and learning, and how he characteristically coped with problems.

The notion that one's own feelings toward a child can be a source of useful information was not only relatively new knowledge to teachers but ran counter to deeply ingrained educational ideas and values. Teachers are taught to avoid subjective reactions in order to remain impartial in their dealings with children. The tendency to avoid or deny feelings, particularly negative feelings, is marked among teachers. The need to like all children is an important part of the image of "good teacher." As feelings of child and teacher became a legitimate focus of speculation by the group, there was less guilt and more open ventilation of feelings of anger and frustration toward the child and his family.

Accepting the teacher's wish to enlist the help of parents in their child's school difficulties, meanwhile noting the inherent difficulties this entailed,

the seminar leader steered the discussion back to the central issue of teacher responsibility -- the child in the classroom. They considered what family information was relevant for the teacher. How should he go about obtaining it? What to ask and what to tell mother about Sandy that would foster an alliance with the school? It was recognized that teachers do not have total responsibility for children as needful as Sandy, that theirs is a responsibility shared with parents and with other professional workers. Sandy's mother would need the help of a social agency. The group recognized that for Sandy, and for all other children, the teacher's information is bound to be incomplete, even when parents are cooperative with the school.

Nevertheless, the teacher does have a wealth of information at his disposal, the major sources of which are his classroom observations. The seminar leader established a framework by which the teacher could order and evaluate these observations systematically and with precision -- a framework built upon the interplay of dynamic, adaptive, economic, and genetic factors in the learning process. For example, through directed inquiry, the seminar leader encouraged the group to speculate about the problems Sandy was attempting to solve through his symptoms. ' did fighting accomplish for him? Teachers observed that he fought to gain attention. The leader accepted and elaborated this notion and encouraged speculations on the underlying motivations of such an intense drive for the teacher's attention. From this directed exploration a number of inferences emerged from the group: that Sandy was angry and perceived others as hostile; that fighting was his mode of communicating with others out of a sense of helplessness; that he was testing the safety of the teaching-learning relationship.

As teachers reacted more to Sandy's seeming helplessness and striving for

protection, another issue arose -- the stress and anxiety underlying his fighting. Where was the danger Sandy perceived -- inside or outside? Were there conditions in school and/or at home that were a realistic source of danger warranting such unusual fearfulness and defensiveness? New observations were made and information recalled. Teachers noted that Sandy had appeared to fear his mother. Mr. Bay remembered that he read in the school records that Sandy had been sexually abused by his father and older brother. Teachers appreciated how such an experience might effect his perception of other men. Perhaps by now, fears of men and women, stemming from past experiences, had been internalized. Current relationships, even though manifestly benign, might tend to stir up anxiety in Sandy without his knowing the cause. Thus, the seminar leader suggested that an important factor in his hyperactivity and his learning problem was in large measure an expression of unconscious anxiety touched off by current external sources of threat.

The idea that unconscious anxiety might be an underlying motivation for Sandy's belligerent attacks on other children and his hostility to Mr. Bay met with considerable skepticism and resistance from the teachers. A note of constraint and defensiveness crept into the discussion. This was understandable. The theory that there are irrational as well as rational forces influencing thought and behavior runs counter to the traditional attitudes and theories held by teachers. Trained to suppress their own emotional reactions to their pupils in the interest of objectivity, it is not surprising that teachers are reluctant to examine children's feelings. This kind of discussion evoked anxiety and guilt in teachers over their failure to understand and respond constructively to a child's communication. They complained they lacked this kind of theoretical knowledge and must take "on-the-spot" action. This is indeed the teacher's reality. In what ways could teachers reach

children if not through appeals to reason or other commonly employed behavior controls (punishment, exclusion from the classroom, etc.)? The discussion was threatening to teachers' customary modes of dealing with irrationality in children and in themselves. They began to question their accustomed methods of coping with children, yet were not able, initially, to incorporate these ideas or to think of alternative approaches.

The leader tried to deal with teacher anxiety in a number of ways.

First, through connecting their uneasiness with new ideas to children's difficulties with newness in learning. Teachers had no trouble with the idea that every encounter with the unknown aroused some anxiety in all of us and that in this sense, anxiety was an invariable concomitant of all learning. Teachers could understand that the tension resulting from the frustration and disequilibrium associated with each new step in learning was essentially adaptive, that under normal conditions, and with understanding guidance, such anxiety could serve as an incentive rather than deterrent to learning.

Second, by identifying some of the ways children express anxiety and communicate it to others. Teachers are accustomed to thinking of communication in verbal terms; introduction of the affective and behavioral modes of communication opened up new avenues of pupil observation and led to new self-awareness. The leader pointed out that, in part, teachers' anxiety is evoked by the child himself (transference); in part, from feelings derived from their own life experiences triggered by the child's behavior (counter-transference).

The leader suggested that Sandy unconsciously transferred to the teacher and school setting the expectations, attitudes and modes of interacting learned earlier with his parents. Mr. Bay, in turn, was ambivalent in his response

to the boy. He had a positive interest in Sandy. Like most teachers, he was ambitious for his student to learn and achieve. But he also was frustrated and irritated at his own lack of success as a teacher. His unrealistic expectations for Sandy were matched by unrealistic demands he made on himself. His frustration and anger initially were so strong that Mr. Bay could not identify any positive qualities in Sandy.

Third, by focusing on the teacher's role and function in facilitating the child's learning and carefully avoiding and protecting the teacher from exposure of personal problems and unconscious motivations.

Fourth, recognizing the teachers' resistance, the leader respected and seriously considered teachers' doubts and questions and did not press for acceptance. She suggested that Mr. Bay continue to observe Sandy. She had in mind that teachers needed time for working through and integrating new knowledge and insights for their professional use. She herself tried to set an example of acceptance and patience. She counted on subsequent discussions for "working through" these concepts, realizing that teachers' feelings in this case would not be changed by pressure or persuasion. Thus the leader demonstrated respect for teachers' learning readiness and confidence in their capacity for change. The validity of this approach was borne out in a follow-up discussion three weeks later. Mr. Bay volunteered the information that he had been mulling over the thought that Sandy was afraid of people and that now, after all, "the idea didn't seem to be so imaginative." He cited evidence in support of this finding, indicating his growing sensitivity to the many levels of feed-back from Sandy.

Turning to Sandy's stealing, the discussion was again negatively tinged. Teachers, by virtue of their training and their position in school, are

oriented to a judgmental, moralistic approach. Just as they are rated by their superiors, so they evaluate, judge, and measure a child's school performance. This occupational and moralistic bias often blocks teachers' capacity to empathize or even tolerate children who violate their moral standards. Why should a well-dressed boy like Sandy, with no lack of money, steal? Teacher reaction to this kind of antisocial behavior was rejecting and punitive. Their concern was mainly with ways to stop the stealing, even while they acknowledged that prohibitions and punishments ordinarily imposed in such cases had rarely served as deterrents. The leader introduced the idea of emotional neediness of Sandy: for love, recognition, and adequacy. She suggested that stealing money, to Sandy, might have several meanings. It might be a symbolic taking from someone to handle a feeling of emotional deprivation, a taking of love, a giving to himself, a compensation for a sense of inadequacy. It might indicate an inability to distinguish between right and wrong or it might be the impulsive urge for immediate gratification typical of the very young child.

Some teachers appeared skeptical of these interpretations. The leader encouraged them to think about these ideas, to test them, not only with Sandy but with other children with similar symptoms, to see if they made sense. It wasn't long after this that teachers began suggesting alternative methods for dealing with children's stealing, based on the concept of need rather than deed. The group moved from a climate of moral condemnation to one of interested speculation and concern. The seminar leader acted on the principle that the acquisition of new knowledge in the context of a supportive learning experience with professional colleagues and herself can modify attitudes in teachers who are not too bound by neurotic conflicts.

Focusing on Sandy's learning problems, the leader called attention to the significance of the fourteen point drop in Sandy's I.Q. Generally, teachers saw

this in biological and/or neurological terms; i.e., as evidence of perceptual defect or brain damage. The leader accepted these as avenues for investigation through medical referral. Another possibility considered was error in the initial test score. Leader and group went on to identify and weigh several additional factors known to influence mental functioning;i.e., stressful life situations; neurotic disturbance; lack of impulse control, emotional immaturity. In this way, the leader taught the concept of multiple causation.

Teachers repeatedly returned to the discrepancies between chronological age and the observed level of mental functioning for Sandy. The leader introduced Erikson's concepts on developmental ego arrests in the critical areas of trust, autonomy, and initiative; impaired capacity for object relations; impaired capacity for impulse control (limited ability to postpone gratification); predominantly pre-verbal learning modes; impaired capacity for secondary process thinking (inability to screen, select); super-ego deficiency; devalued self-concept.

This way of looking at Sandy's maladaptive school functioning appeared to be especially meaningful to the teachers. They felt that understanding that a child's mode of learning progresses in an orderly sequence of development through successive stages shed light on much of Sandy's academic retardation. Unlike his classmates, Sandy not only was failing to cope with the normal developmental tasks of the latency period, he had not mastered the tasks of earlier stages. He, therefore, lacked the basic pre-requisites of academic learning. He literally did not know how to learn. His inadequacy and subsequent failure in school compounded his difficulties, eroded his self-esteem and further impeded learning. The diagnostic classification of developmental arrest appeared to be the most useful way to think about Sandy's severe academic retardation.

Thus by utilizing two kinds of diagnostic data -- observations of Sandy in the classroom, and his introspective self-observations (i.e., his own feelings and responses), Mr. Bay and the group moved toward a tentative hypothesis about the meaning and aims underlying Sandy's behavior and learning problems. In the course of teaching and demonstrating a causal, diagnostic orientation, the seminar leader had introduced the teachers to the following concepts: that all behavior has meaning and serves as a means of communication; that learning is an interactional process, with affective, social, and cognitive components; that all learning activates anxiety which may promote or interfere with learning; that the same symptomatic behavior may have different meanings; that maladaptive symptoms are unsuccessful attempts at adaptation and are the child's means of maintaining his psychic equilibrium. By demonstrating respect for professional learning readiness of the teachers, the leader reinforced the ideas of developmental readiness in children.

On the basis of this dynamic-developmental orientation, Sandy appeared significantly different from teachers' initial impression of him.

The group addressed itself specifically to the practical implications of this new understanding of "what made Sandy tick." This involved taking another look at the psychological realities of the classroom situation. Regardless of the enormous neediness and serious emotional pathology presented by Sandy, he was, after all, one child in a group of 35 others, each of whom also required and had a right to expect some help from Mr. Bay. What would be a reasonable, feasible role for Mr. Bay? What aspects of Sandy's problems might be most amenable to teacher support and/or intervention? Knowledge of Sandy's severe psychological pathology was useful mainly to alert Mr. Bay to the child's vulnerabilities and limitations in the classroom setting, to enable him to work out effective teaching strategies. Change in Sandy's personality structure,

however necessary, was clearly beyond the competence and responsibility of the teacher. Far more important for Mr. Bay was the discovery that Sandy did have both the need and the wish to learn; that, moreover, he evidenced the capacity to learn and had managed to learn despite his crippling problems. As evidence teachers cited the striking contradictions in Sandy. He was frequently hostile; yet, he also sought opportunities to be close to Mr. Bay, to gain his attention; he ignored his assignments, but came to show his drawings; he refused to read his lessons but leafed through and appeared interested in story books. The teaching challenge and responsibility was clear -- to find the means to appreciate, reinforce, and further stimulate the positives apparent in this behavior. Mr. Bay would have to think of ways by which he might exploit the strengths in Sandy to bolster and induce continued progressive development. What adaptations in school-day organization, use of materials, teaching methods, teacher-pupil relationships could be expected to spur Sandy to move ahead developmentally?

Teachers' suggestions for facilitating Sandy's learning fell into three categories:

1. Provision for psychological protection; i.e., anticipating, alleviating, and neutralizing his anxiety
2. Compensation for unmet needs; i.e., utilizing classroom media to meet Sandy's developmental needs
3. Reinforcement of ego strengths and buttressing of progressive development

In the areas of curriculum and method, they made the following recommendations:

I. <u>Curriculum</u>

(a) Modification of the required 3A curriculum to enable Sandy to experience some pleasure and success in learning.

(b) Introduction of topics relevant to his developmental concerns. The teacher might capitalize on Sandy's concern with motility and controls through units of work on transportation, fire controls, equipment, etc.

(c) Capitalization on Sandy's manifest interest in reading material of his own choice

(d) Utilization of subject matter as symbolic means of giving to him; i.e., giving him books, reading to him

II. Method

(a) Making the classroom and learning safe for Sandy through individualized, interpersonal relationship, structure, consistency, predictability, protection, and pleasurable experiences in the classroom

(b) Helping him settle down through a well-timed word, look, even a tap on the shoulder

(c) Meeting his need for motoric outlets through more active learning tasks; by dealing with his distractibility and short attention span through short assignments; by meeting his need for pleasure and immediate gratification by concrete tasks well within his grasp

(d) Anticipating his impulsive activity in so far as possible; by making contact with him verbally, and if need be, physically, before it becomes imperative that Sandy discharge his tension motorically and disruptively.

(e) Enlisting the help of the group to meet Sandy's needs: for acceptance, for protection, and learning. As the teacher demonstrates his interest and concern for Sandy, other children in the group identify with the teacher and, in turn, may offer Sandy their interest and support. This investment in Sandy by teacher and classmates may mitigate his isolation and bolster his self-esteem.

Are these expectations unrealistic for a teacher in a classroom of 35 children, many of whom are disturbed and disturbing? Admittedly, teachers may not be able to individualize instruction to the degree suggested for Sandy. The tempo of events in the classroom calls for immediate action; their complexity, however, calls for deliberation and evaluation. Teaching, with its dependence on communication, demands understanding and response to the various modes of interpersonal communication used by individual

students. Teaching methodology based solely on abstract norms of group behavior fail to meet the needs of the group as well as the individual, leaving the teacher frustrated and overburdened.

This case was brought back for follow-up discussion during a three-month period. Regular follow-up of cases serves three purposes:

1. It allows time for teachers to integrate and augment new knowledge.
2. It gives teachers time to test out formulations and recommendations.
3. It enables the seminar leader to evaluate her teaching.

Perceptible changes were noted in this teacher's self-perception and in his diagnositc appraisal of Sandy. Mr. Bay wrote, "There was a barrier built up between Sandy and me; so my initial job was to eliminate the barrier. I soon found out he didn't have a friend in the room and that I would have to be his first friend. My original case report shows that I blamed him for every fight; this assumption proved to be false. I noted that many children made fun of him and provoked him."

Mr. Bay reported on many changes he had made in his teaching methods. He assigned a variety of simple tasks in the "tool" subjects, designed to yield quick, tangible success. Sandy constructed a "special" science notebook, an activity meant to channel some of his motoric push. "It was," Mr. Bay noted, "one of the few things Sandy ever stayed with and finished." Mr. Bay felt that the project "gave Sandy a feeling of belonging and being wanted and opened up fresh and gratifying avenues for relationship between Sandy and me." Sandy's fights with children decreased. Mr. Bay came to accept that helping Sandy would involve the use of himself, the group, teaching materials tailored to Sandy's needs; that all this would be a long-term project with many ups and downs for Sandy and himself because learning, like

all development, does not proceed in a straight line. As a result of Mr. Bay's new understanding, he was beginning to see Sandy as a child in need rather than as a burden. Even more important, Mr. Bay saw himself as the helping rather than the helpless teacher. It was becoming clear from Mr. Bay's reports and, more importantly, from his manner of presenting himself in the seminar, that Mr. Bay was growing in self-confidence and finding more gratification in his teaching.

Conclusions

Although this program has been in operation for only two years, we have evidence from the written and verbal reports of the participating teachers, from faculty evaluation and from the remarkable growth of the program itself --

1. That the application of dynamic ego psychology to academic learning and classroom problems has practical, positive value for teachers.

   (a) It facilitates and improves teaching.

   (b) It furthers more effective classroom management.

   (c) It helps the teacher balance the needs of the individual with the needs of the group.

   (d) It heightens teacher sensitivity in relationships with children, parents, and colleagues.

   (e) It enhances teacher self-esteem and augments personal and professional gratifications.

2. The knowledge of dynamic ego psychology alone is not a panacea for dealing with school problems. Many other factors influence what a teacher can accomplish in a given situation. The school setting -- its educational philosophy and administration -- determines in large measure the extent to which the most knowledgeable teachers can individualize instruction. By the same token, the educational applications of any theoretical concepts vary with the personality, ability, and training of the teachers involved as well as with the relative strengths and differences in the children who make up the school population.

3. The teachers' experience as learners in the seminars was a significant factor in their integration of theory with their teaching practice. The interactions and transactions in the seminar may be likened to a dress rehearsal in which teachers, with the encouragement and support of the leader and the group, experiment with new ideas and role relationships which they later may put to use in their own classrooms.

4. The seminars provide a learning milieu in which significant change in teacher attitudes and professional functioning occurs and can be observed. The emphasis on teacher-child relationships in the case presentations and the records of seminar interactions made by our recorders provides a basis for evaluation of this change.

5. A training program that utilizes teacher observations of children's thinking, feelings, and behavior, and teacher introspection as instructional tools gives rise to unique problems in learning. Since many of the concepts taught run counter to traditional educational philosophy and practice, they often activate anxiety and personal conflict in teachers. But when the leader accepts and respects teachers' feelings and ideas, does not press them to acceptthose she holds, when there is no threat to teachers' personal privacy and professional expertise, resistance is minimized and anxiety mitigated.

6. We try to help teachers to use psychodynamic theory to become more tolerant, sensitive observers of themselves and their pupils. Since this kind of learning is dependent on reinforcement of time and experience rather than academic courses, teachers need continuing opportunities for consultation. Ideally, schools should make such services available to their teachers on an on-going basis -- first, to stimulate staff development; second, to meet the need of teachers for help with classroom problems as they arise.

7. This interdisciplinary experience demonstrates that consultation helps reduce the professional insularity of teachers by bringing them into contact with other professional workers in the behavioral sciences. Further, it helps to clarify and define the role of the teacher on the mental health team. The translation and adaptation of the theoretical content and method presented by the leader are implemented through a two-step process of consultation and collaboration. In the consultation phase, the leader (consultant) carries primary responsibility. She lends her expertise to provide assistance to teachers on a specific problem situation. She encourages teacher-participation with the aim of eliciting observations, of raising questions, of ventilating feelings, leading to a refocusing of the problem. Her contribution is not only her knowledge in diagnosis but also her skill in identifying the crucial needs in the child which must be met if he is to learn.

Devising educational techniques for meeting a child's needs, and ameliorating or remediating his problem is the province of the teachers in collaboration iwth the leader. In the collaborative phase, the expertise of the teacher is cultivated and emphasized. Our point of view is reflected in the following words of Kris:

> In an relationship between a more general set of propositions and a field of application outside the area of experience from which tese propositions were derived, a number of factors must be taken into account. The more general propositions, in this instance those of psychoanalysis, must be formulated in a way that permits their operation in the field,

> here that of education. The process of application is likely to act as a test of the validity, of the propositions or of the usefulness of their formulation. Hence we are dealing not merely with a process of diffusion of knowledge from a "higher" to a "lower" level, from the more general to the "applied" field, but with a process of communication between experts trained in different skills in which cross-fertilization of approaches is likely to occur.

The myth has prevailed in education and in psychoanalysis that psychoanalytic theory would disturb teachers, arouse repressed anxiety. The warning that "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing," is often heard. Our experience points to the contrary. For most of the teachers, participation in this program has brought more knowledge and understanding of children, together with more self-awareness and sharper definition of professional roles and functions, with corresponding reduction in teacher stress and defensiveness. From the standpoint of the seminar leaders, collaboration with teachers has been enriching and stimulating. Through the Teacher Training and Consultation Program, both the educator and the mental health worker have achieved a higher level of professional practice.